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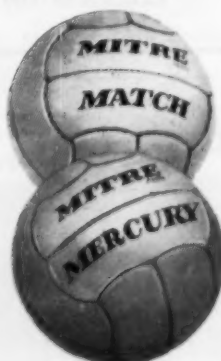
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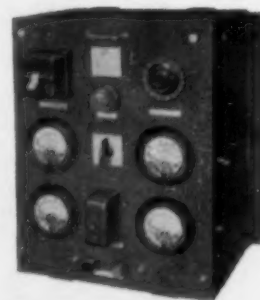
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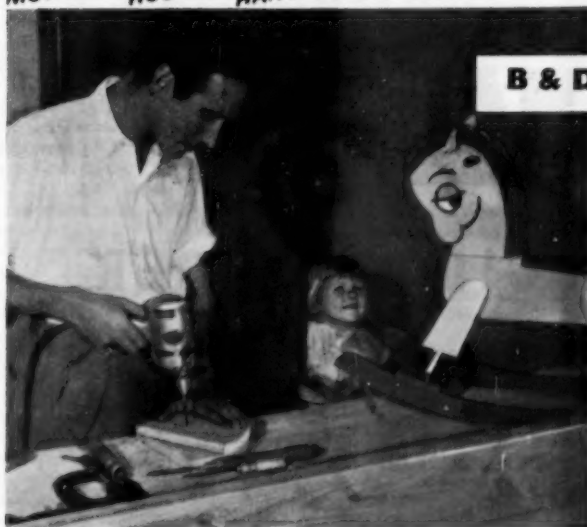
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The SCHOOL GOVERNMENT CHRONICLE

AN INDEPENDENT MONTHLY REVIEW OF EDUCATION.

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MAY, 1955

The Correlation of Entrance-Examination Results with G.C.E. Results

By G. G. URWIN, M.A. (Lond.)

The efficiency of objective testing as a means of determining entry to a grammar school has been vigorously impugned and defended on most grounds, but one aspect that has been neglected is the attempted correlation of test-results with later performance during the grammar school career, especially in the examination for the General Certificate of Education. Poor results at Ordinary level in 1951 and the unsatisfactory quality of the Sixth Form that sat the Advanced papers in 1953 led the writer to consider the entire entry of September, 1947.

Obviously the influences at work during the years at school are so numerous that one can find reasons in plenty for discrepancies between the two examinations, but any person who pins his faith on the objective test at the age of eleven-plus must assume that ability will be later influenced by health, family circumstances, outside interests, good or bad teaching, etc., yet still believe that the children have been selected by the most accurate method. One most important but accidental influence on this particular group caused a great disturbance, the extent of which can never be gauged: the best equipped boys were assigned to a four-year stream, but, at the end of their course, were debarred from the new General Certificate by the age-restriction, and so had to move prematurely into a Sixth Form and obtain Ordinary qualifications while devoting most of their time to Advanced studies. Moreover, teachers had to accept them for Sixth Form courses without guidance from the results of an unprejudiced examination.

The system employed by the local authority is to set in one day Moray House tests of arithmetic, English and intelligence. The marks obtained are adjusted according to age, and then added together; the desks of the grammar school are filled in order of the total marks.

To the ninety-four originally admitted, eight were later added by transfer from other grammar schools and no details of their entrance examinations are available; eleven were in turn transferred when their parents moved; seven left before they sat the G.C.E. examination; and five were demoted to lower age-groups. The total marks obtained by those eventually admitted to the grammar school ranged from 379 to 321, the Arithmetic Quotient varying from 133 to 99, the English Quotient from 131 to 96, and the Intelligence Quotient from 131 to 100.

Of the five boys who were kept down, only one stayed to complete the G.C.E. course, and he passed in no subjects. None of the premature school-leavers were, on paper, outstandingly weak (I.Q.s 100-118: Totals 321-339), nor, as will be seen, was the minimum total necessarily an indication of inability to cope with grammar school work.

At the other end of the scale are those who completed a

Sixth Form course and sat the Advanced examination in 1953. So remarkably poor was the work during the term that several boys were not allowed to enter for the usual three subjects, and eventually a large number had to return in order to study for a further year. It may be of some import that six of the boys who came from other areas stayed on into the Sixth Form and one obtained the only State Scholarship awarded to the school that year. Excluding these six, the twenty-two selected for the fullest grammar school education obtained among them thirty-four passes in Advanced subjects at the first attempt. Yet, as the following statistics show, the group included many from the top of the entrance list.

	Total.	IQ	ARTS	
			Adv. Passes, 1953	Adv. Passes, 1954
A	379	120	3	3
B*	368	128	2	3
C*	368	131	2	0
D	368	119	2	—
E	359	128	0	1
F*	355	123	1	2
G	348	115	1	2
H	347	128	0	1
I	347	118	2	—
J*	346	115	1	3
K	344	120	0	2
L*	329	114	1	3
M*	327	117	2	3

	Total.	IQ.	SCIENCE	
			Adv. Passes, 1953	Adv. Passes, 1954
A*	368	124	2	3
B	366	129	2	—
C*	363	124	3	—
D	352	133	—	2
E	345	123	0	—
F	340	117	2	2
G*	339	126	2	—
H*	336	112	2	3
I*	326	114	—	2

*Proceeded to a place of advanced education.

In order to gain a clearer impression of the value of high marks in the entrance tests as a criterion of future success, the first fifteen boys of the admission list are studied in relation to their G.C.E. results. Only those subjects for

which they were entered are mentioned, as the school debarred from the examination those pupils whose work is so poor as to make failure certain.

	Total	Form	ORDINARY		ADVANCED			
			Passed	Failed	Passed First	Failed Attempt	Passed Second	Failed Attempt
A	379	A	E, F, L, GP.	M three times	F, G, H		F, G, H	
B	369	A then B	EL, C, G, M, P : E (2nd try)					
C	368	A	E, F, Gg, GP, L		E, H	G	E, G, H	
D	368	A	G, Gg, M, E, GP (2nd try) C (3rd try)		M, P		P, TM	
E	368	A	E, F, GP, L, M		E, H	G		G
F	368	A	E, GP	L, M	E, H	G		
G	366	A	C, E, G, Gg, M	GP	TM			
H	363	A	E, G, Gg, M		C, M, P			
I	361	A then B	E, EL, G, H	F, Gg				
J	359	B	F					
K	359	A	E, F, G : L, M (2nd try)	GP (twice)	E, F, G	F		G
L	357	B	A, Hd, E, GS 1 & 2, M (2nd try)	EL (thrice)				
M	355	A	E, G, M : GP (2nd try)	Gg	H	E, Gg	H, Gg	
N	352	B	GS 1 & 2, Hd, M E (2nd try)	EL, H F (4 times)				
O	352	B		A, E				

The bottom marks of the entrance examination gave a more accurate forecast of what was to be the course of events, but even these were not entirely reliable.

	Total	Form	ORDINARY		ADVANCED			
			Passed	Failed				
A	325	A	A, B, E, EL, G, M	H				
B	325	B then C	Kept down a year; then left					
C	324	B then C	Kept down a year	A, Gg				
D	323	B		A, GS 1 & 2 Hd, M				
E	323	B		A, E, GS 1				
F	322	A then B	EL, G, Gg, GS 1 : E (2nd try)	H (twice)				
G	322	B	EL	A, H, Hd				
H	322	B	GS 1 & 2, H, Hd					
I	321	B	E, EL, F, Gg, GS 1, H, M					
J	321	B	EL, F, GS 1 & 2 M.	H, Hd, E (twice)	Spent year in VI Form			
K	321	B	F	A				
L	321	B then C	Kept down a year; then left					
M	321	B then C	Kept down a year; then left					
N	321	B	EL	F, H				

Key: Art (A); Biology (B); Chemistry (C); English Language (E); English Literature (EL); French (F); German (G); Geography (Gg); General Paper (GP); General Science, Papers 1 and 2 (GS 1 & 2); History (H); Handicraft (Hd); Latin (L); Mathematics (M); Physics (P); Mathematics and Theoretical Mechanics (TM).

The school courses were at that time arranged so that one stream, selected after a year at the school, followed a four-

year academic course specializing in languages, while the remainder stayed as parallel forms engaged on a five-year course that included art and handicraft. At the end of the third year, however, these were re-assessed into forms that followed on the one hand a special technical course (T), and on the other a general non-technical course (NT). After five years, seven boys (5 NT and 2 T), who sat the General Certificate passed in no subjects. The entrance examination totals of these ranged from 323 to 352, and the I.Q.s from 104 to 118.

The most important step is to examine the component marks of the entrance examination, and compare them with performances in certain subjects. The meaning of the mark awarded for intelligence is difficult to assess, however and it is therefore placed against the over-all performances in public examinations. It will be seen that most boys with the highest I.Q. went into and stayed in the A-stream, but only one of the first six achieved any ready success.

	I.Q.	Form	Passes at Ordinary Level		Passes at Advanced Level	
			1st Attempt	2nd Attempt	1st Attempt	2nd Attempt
A	131	A	2	—	2	0
B	129	A	5	—	3	—
C	129	B	2	4	(stayed two years in G.C.E. form.)	
D	128	A	4	1	0	1
E	128	A	3	1	0	1
F	128	A	2	1	2	3
.....						
U	105	B	1	—		
V	104	B	then Kept down a year then left			
		C				
W	104	B	0	—		
X	104	B	4	—		
Y	103	B	5	—	2	—
Z	100	B	then Kept down a year then left			
		C				

The number of Ordinary Level passes obtained at the first attempt may be related to the I.Q. Unfortunately, the A-form cannot be truly compared with the B-forms since, as stated before, circumstances interfered with the curriculum of the former, and so the number of passes was obtained at different times and sometimes after an initial failure. Two boys obtained seven passes (I.Q.s of 111, 117), three obtained six (I.Q.s of 112, 117, 126) and six obtained five (I.Q.s of 114-128).

The Arithmetic Quotients are presented in a similar fashion, but related to the results of examinations in mathematics at G.C.E. level. There seems little relationship between the so-called arithmetic ability of a primary school child and the ability to comprehend mathematical processes taught in a grammar school.

	A.Q.	Results
A	133	75 per cent. in Ordinary 50 per cent. in Advanced.
B	131	85 per cent. in Ordinary Alternative. 50 per cent. in Advanced Maths. and Theoretical Mechanics at second attempt.
C	130	Failed Ordinary.
D	129	Failed Ordinary.
E	128	Failed Ordinary three times and so surrendered place at a university.
.....		
V	102	60 per cent. in Ordinary.
W	102	Failed Ordinary.
X	101	Failed Ordinary.
Y	100	70 per cent. in Ordinary.
Z	99	40 per cent. in Ordinary.

Alternatively, the highest marks, 75 per cent. to 90 per cent., obtained at Ordinary Level were given to boys whose original A.Q.s varied from 104 to 133.

The English results can be treated in a manner similar to that for mathematics.

	E.Q.	Form	Ordinary Marks		Advanced Marks
			1st Attempt	2nd Attempt	
A	131	A	65		55
B	131	A	45		
C	129	B		45	
D	126	A then B	35	45	
E	125	A	30	50	
F	125	B	50		
.....					
V	99	B	Not entered		
W	98	B	Not entered		
X	98	A	Not entered	35	
Y	98	B	30		
Z	96	B	Not entered		

These results suggest that there may be a closer relationship between E.Q. and the ability to study grammar school English than between A.Q. and the study of mathematics, and the greater reliability is definitely shown in the details of boys at the bottom of the list. However, when trying to relate the highest marks in the G.C.E. with the entrance marks, there is again a lack of correlation. The two boys with 70 per cent. had E.Q.s of 114 and 119, the next on the list had an E.Q. of 131, and four boys with 55 per cent. had quotients ranging from 107 to 120.

The results of the comparisons are nothing but confusion. Admittedly, only a small number of boys are involved, though they represented the entire intake of one year, but one would expect that a group such as this should provide results showing some correlation if any correlation exists. From these figures one may say that the single certain deduction is that boys who obtain very low marks in the English entrance test will probably find difficulty with the subject during their school careers and will eventually fail the G.C.E. examination. It may be that the Ordinary level examination is not correctly assessing the innate abilities, that the syllabus is not in keeping with the abilities of children accepted for grammar school education, or that the entrance examination conducted in the manner stated is not selecting children who can benefit from an academic course. Whatever the reasons—and the more one thinks the more numerous become the distressing implications—this particular set of boys must prove that, on some occasions at least, the selection for grammar school places, which appears superficially to be so mathematically certain and statistically sound, is in effect largely haphazard.

Selling Education

Minister Talks to Teachers on Public Relations.

Speaking at the N.U.T. Conference last month, Sir David Eccles, Minister of Education, described Education as the senior social service, but, he said, many people thought it also a far too silent service. They said that those engaged in it were not particularly good at public relations. Perhaps, said Sir David, they were too engrossed in talking at each other when they should be speaking out to the public.

The Minister then recommended to his audience what he described as the first lesson of salesmanship. It was to put their best goods in the shop window.

Continuing, Sir David said: "We can never make education popular by harping on slum schools, threadbare teachers, and illiterate children. That beggarly technique

is old-fashioned and out of place in the welfare-state, where everyone pays for everything; and taxpayers and ratepayers would rather be asked to back a success than to make good a deficiency—though we know it comes to the same thing in the end.

"Look at the reputation of our Primary Schools, which is below what it ought to be. Could you have a better example of inadequate public relations? How many members of the public—apart from the professionals in education—know what has been done in the Primaries to overcome the bulge in the birthrate; or how great has been the progress in teaching handicapped children?

"Contrast the actual achievements with the criticisms one hears. You know what I mean: that the three 'Rs' are worse taught than before the war; that the buildings of all Primaries are either ruinously old and insanitary or millionaire palaces where ill-mannered children do as they please and learn nothing.

"We cannot meet this sort of nonsense with silent contempt. We are the servants of the public and it is our duty to explain to them what we are trying to do for their children, how well we are succeeding, how success means expansion, and expansion calls for more money.

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"Let's tell it."

"There is good news for the future. From now onwards, provided the present rate of increase in the number of teachers continues, there will be a steady improvement in the size of classes. This year the size of classes in infants' schools will fall—this fall will be rapid and continuous until 1961, when there need be no classes in the country over the regulation size."—MR. DENNIS VOSPER, *Parliamentary Secretary to M.O.E.*



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Handicapped Children

By J. LUMSDEN, H.M.I.

An Address delivered at a Meeting of Members and Officials of Education Authorities at the N.U.T. Conference last month.

I like to take every opportunity offered me of talking about handicapped children because their needs are so little known. Although some handicapped children have been given special education in England for more than 150 years, and, although there have been publicly maintained special schools for more than fifty years, there are still very few people, except their parents and the special school teachers, who know much about the problems the handicapped arouse.

I admit that things are better than they were twenty-five years ago. Many students in training colleges and university departments now regularly visit special schools as part of their background training. And since the War there have been two occasions when the Ministry has arranged conferences of the Local Education Authorities, region by region, to discuss matters of common interest on the provision of special schools. Nevertheless there are very few people with first hand knowledge. I often lecture on subnormal children to teachers who presumably have had some previous interest or they would not have attended. Yet when I ask the question, it is rare to find anyone who has visited a special school.

Rarity of Cases.

I am not blaming any one: the reasons are plain. It is fortunate that most kinds of handicapped child are so rare that they do not come to the notice of teachers sufficiently often to arouse an interest, and in the small or medium-sized L.E.A. they do not form a large enough section of work for anyone in the office to specialize in it. An infant or junior school with a two-stream entry, taking in eighty new children a year, might go for twenty-five years before, by the operation of the laws of chance, it would find one child so hard of hearing that special education would even be contemplated for him. Every six years it might find a child who was a severe cripple. Only once in sixty years would it be likely to have a really severe epileptic apply for admission. Some handicaps, like blindness or total deafness, are practically never seen in ordinary schools, because they are detected previously. So one cannot expect to find much knowledge of the special types of education they need.

But they do turn up occasionally and no head can tell when one may turn up in his school. If he is well informed he will know that it is his duty to get in touch with the School Medical Officer or Chief Education Officer, according to the local arrangements, to see what is the best thing to do for the child medically and educationally. When his letter comes in to the office, how great an experience have the staff there?

In a small county or county borough, with less than 15,000 children, it is unlikely that more than four to six children will need to be considered for special education for deafness each year, and only one or two sent to a special school. In even the larger L.E.A.s there will hardly be more than one or two new cases of blindness a year. How is anyone outside the very largest L.E.A.s to get experience of the problems blind or deaf children present, or even to keep his hand in and prevent himself from getting rusty, when cases occur so infrequently?

Commoner Defects.

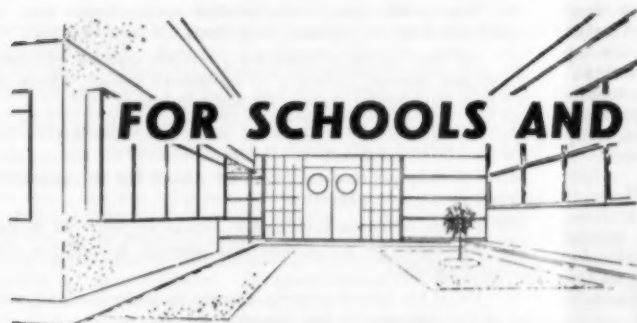
So far I have confined myself to the rarer handicaps, of sight and hearing, of epilepsy and severe crippling; but there are other handicaps which are more common, of

general poor health, poor mental ability, and unsatisfactory development of character. These occur in all schools, and all teachers are accustomed to dealing with manifestations of them in their daily work. So accustomed are they, in fact, that they sometimes do not realize that our educational system does in most places offer them some assistance with their hardest cases, and it is not uncommon to find teachers not reporting to the L.E.A. very serious cases of poor health, low ability, or maladjustment just because they do not think anything can be done. This is particularly so when local facilities are poor. In general it may be said that not until there is good provision will all the children who need it be brought forward.

Someone may ask me this pertinent question, "If so little is known of the needs of handicapped children by teachers, and if many L.E.A. staffs get so little experience of particular types, how comes it that there are over 600 special schools in England and Wales with over 50,000 children and 4,000 teachers in them? Who got them built?"

Debt to Individual Pioneers.

Every special school has its own history. There is no common pattern. The earliest were started by the charitably disposed who saw the plight of children with a certain disability—the blind, the deaf, the crippled. Some one or two leading citizens in some way had cases brought to their attention and raised a public subscription. Since L.E.A.s have had powers, that is, for over fifty years, they have erected maintained schools. But why did some L.E.A.s do so, and not others? It would be most invidious of me to give names here, but I can think of pairs of L.E.A.s of the same size, one of each pair having made excellent provision many years ago; the other having done practically nothing, or only begun recently. It does not seem to me to be a matter of rateable value, or political complexion: it is rather that in one there was some one person who saw a need, and worked for it, and in the other it was no one's business. The "someone" might be a public figure, a member of the education committee, who had the handicapped as a mission. To name only those who have passed on, a Margaret Beavan in Liverpool, or a Maud Maxfield in Sheffield saw a need and worked to have something done, and their memory is kept green by special schools called after them. Sometimes, however, it was not a representative of the public who gave the impetus and kept up the pressure till provision was made. A chief education officer, or one of his administrative assistants, has, for some reason which will never be known widely, taken a special interest in the handicapped and pressed the committee. Or it may be that one of the authority's organizers or inspectors, with a wide ranging beat, seeing many schools and hearing the troubles of many teachers, was the real instigator. Such seldom have schools named after them. And though I have kept him to the last I am not forgetting the school medical officer who, perhaps as often as anyone, has used his influence to get proper facilities made for the children who are referred to him and whose plight is very evident to him. I do not pretend to be a historian of education, and I may be wrong in this, but it seems to me that before there were school medical officers, public education was concerned too much with the provision of buildings, the grouping of children into standards, and the teaching of the subjects of the



FOR SCHOOLS AND INSTITUTIONS

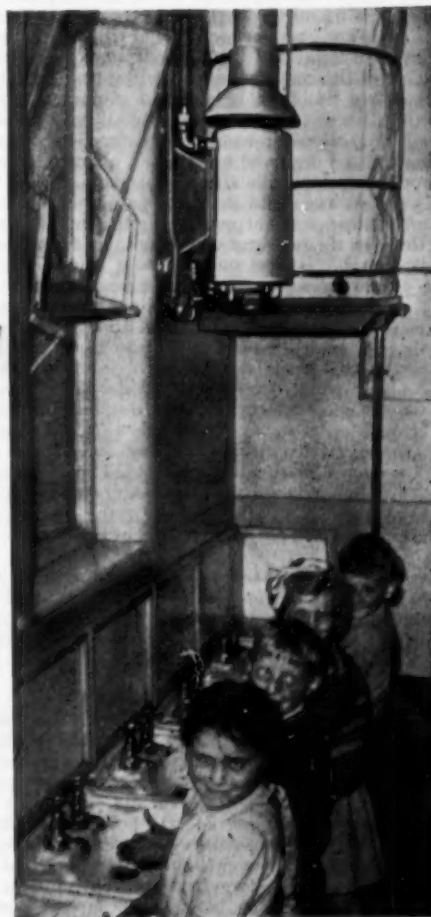
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curriculum. Their appointment was almost the first official recognition of the individuality of children. To this day they are among the few people in the education service for whom the class is of no concern, and the individual everything. It is not only schools for physically handicapped and delicate children which owe their inception to the efforts of school medical officers. They have equally been interested in the subnormal and the maladjusted.

Wider View of Special Educational Treatment.

When I had written so much of this paper I realized that I might be misleading you into thinking that special schools were the only form of special education suitable for handicapped children. But the old simple pattern of the beginning of the century has passed away. Then if a child was found to be blind, he went to a blind school: if he could not hear, to a deaf school: if he was mentally defective or crippled, to a school for defectives. That practice had its day, and has passed. Now we try to offer appropriate special education treatment (S.E.T.) to each child who has any handicap. It is a conception of service to the handicapped, not merely provision of schools.

In the past the presence of a defect meant admission to a special school. It was one of those simple, all-or-none, ideas. Children were either defective in some way, and therefore could not be educated in ordinary schools, or they were quite all right, and needed no help beyond that of their ordinary class teacher. Under those conditions, of course, the important thing was to decide whether there was a defect or not, for once it was decided by the doctor that there was, education was decided automatically. Now a decision that the child suffers from a disability of body or mind is only the first step, and leaves quite open the question where he should be educated and what kind of special treatment he should have. A great variety of types of school and service is required if the special needs of children of any one of the categories of the handicapped are to be met.

I should like to take two examples to illustrate this newer complexity of provision, and the difficulty that L.E.A.s may have in choosing the most appropriate form of special educational treatment. The first is from defects of vision: the second from disabilities in learning.

Blind and Partially Sighted.

Once someone has observed that a child has difficulty in seeing as well as others do, either by noticing his behaviour in school, or by giving him an eye-test, questions may arise of educational import. It may be that with proper glasses he can go on in his own school and make just as good progress as if he had no defect. Fortunately this is the case with most children with eye defects. No doubt there will be some difficulties over the glasses for child and teacher: one more thing to be forgotten and left at home, besides handkerchief and dinner money; one more decision to be made, to wear them or not to wear them at physical training, or games. We ought not to under-estimate the effect which merely wearing glasses has on some children—but even if we are understanding and considerate we need not think of them as handicapped.

If a child is having difficulty in his school work even though he has proper glasses, if it seems that he ought to have some special educational treatment, what kind of treatment should that be? Fifty years ago there was no problem. Then any child who could not read the ordinary school books used by children was regarded as blind. (This was legally so up to 1944.) If he could not be educated in his own school he had to go to a blind school, and in practically all cases that meant the nearest blind school. There was a simple, clean-cut decision. Think of the change now. The Authority may have some or all of the following possibilities open, and they are expected to choose that one best fitted to the child. All the choices are not open everywhere, but there may be the following:

1. The child may stay in his own class, with a magnifying lens and special help from his own teacher.

2. He may go to a class for partially sighted children held in one selected primary or secondary school, where he may join the regular classes for some subjects.

3. He may go to a class for partially sighted children held in a school with which it has little contact.

4. He may go to a day special school for the partially sighted in its own premises.

Or if none of these facilities is available near his home,

5. He may go to a boarding special school for the partially sighted.

6. Or, if his defect is more serious, to a blind school, and this is not necessarily the nearest one.

(a) If he is under five it must be decided whether he should go to a nursery school for the blind, which involves his parents' wishes, their capacity to care for him sensibly at home and so on.

(b) If he is over five there is seldom any choice—the nearest infant and junior blind school. But he may be found retarded by some other handicap than blindness and may be placed with advantage in

(c) A school for retarded blind.

At eleven or twelve three kinds of secondary school are open to him:

(d) Modern;

(e) Technical—with commercial or musical bias, and

(f) Grammar.

When he finishes school there is choice of career, and this may lead to a desire for

(g) technical training of some sort.

That is to say, there are twelve possibilities open. The Authority which has 15,000 children may have only one or two children per year for whom it has to take such decisions. It does not have many precedents. They are not simple decisions. They cannot be made solely on grounds of visual acuity, or prognosis of the cause of the impaired vision. They involve knowing the child, his intelligence, ability in school work, special aptitudes; his home background; the geographical conditions of his home and various schools; the general facilities open in the ordinary schools in the area; and also the characteristics of special schools all over England. Only some of the information can be got by examining the child. Some more is already available in the L.E.A. office. Some must be obtained from outside, and it is not very accessible. But the final decision is an educational decision, with a bearing on the child's whole future career: a very responsible one.

Difficulties in Learning.

The second group of handicapped children to whom I wish to direct attention so that the complexity of the problem of finding the most appropriate form of Special Education Treatment for each child may be realized, is those who have difficulties in learning. I use this phrase in its widest sense to include those who have difficulties in learning how to get on with people, and how to behave, as well as difficulties in learning to read or spell. I am using it to cover the mental defective, the severely and the less dull, the backward who are not dull, the temporarily and the permanently subnormal, and the maladjusted, whether they are successful in school or not, for they have clearly not learned to fit in to their society adequately. All these children have in common a need for some sort of educational help, but they differ in the type of help that will do them most good. It would be so convenient if they fell into well marked types so that after an examination they could be docketed "Type 7M" or "Type 41D," and could be allocated to a corresponding type of class or school. But, perhaps fortunately, psychological knowledge does not

enable us to do this, nor does it appear likely that it ever will. In any case, we do not look at each child separately, and plan a school or class for his needs, like making him a tailor-made suit. Perhaps ideally we should: practically we do not. We look around at all the existing types of school and class and service of help, and try to find which of them will fit him best; as it were looking round the store for the best fitting suit they have in stock. From time to time some person (or some committee) is struck by the fact that there are a lot of similar boys who are not being well fitted, and they get an addition made to the range of goods available, a new kind of special service. It stands to reason that the more types of special educational treatment are available the greater the chance of having something really suitable for most children. Progress should not depend on having this or that, but some of each.

In some places the choice is still lamentably small, but in others there is a considerable variety to choose from. It would be too much to say that the ideal exists anywhere, but there is a very fair chance in some L.E.A. areas of a reasonably sound education being provided for most of these misfits.

It would be boring to list all the varieties of special educational treatment which I have seen available for children who have difficulty in learning, but here are some of the more usual: How many of them are available where you live?

(1) A large variety of arrangements in ordinary primary and secondary schools, tutorial groups, or special classes, full- or part-time, drawing from one school or several; admitting all kinds of backward pupils, or confining themselves to dull only, or to backward-but-not-dull only or maladjusted only; keeping children for only a few months, or for years; regarded as excrescences on the school organization, or as a valued and integral part of it, some being mere dumps for undesirables, others being most admirable forms of educational provision. (The term "Special class" could be used for all or any of these, but as a description it is too vague to convey much meaning.)

(2) Day special schools for subnormal children who are, in general, those with permanent disability which prevents hope of return to ordinary schools, but nevertheless allows prospects of a useful life in the community after specialist education.

(3) Boarding schools for similar children.

(4) Special schools for maladjusted children, generally boarding but occasionally day.

(5) In addition certain services of advice and treatment for children attending any of these types of school, known as psychological or child guidance services.

(6) Occupation centres for so-called ineducable children who have had to be rejected as unsuitable for any of the previous facilities but yet can attend from their homes a centre for training.

(7) Institutions for mental defectives.

The last two types of facility are provided not by L.E.A.s but by the health committees of the same councils, and by hospital boards, but their adequacy or inadequacy does affect the work of L.E.A.s since, if they are insufficient, there is a tendency for some children who would be better cared for in them to be found in L.E.A. schools. In any case it is the L.E.A. which decides that a child cannot be educated in any type of school and reports his name to the health committee, and sets on foot the procedure of placing him.

Need for an Educational View.

These possibilities may be open for a child who has difficulty in learning. Who is to say which is most appropriate? If we exclude those arrangements which

exist in the child's own school, which are normally under the control of the head master, all other possibilities involve change of school and therefore parents' wishes. Who is to persuade the parents?

If the child is once called maladjusted, rather than subnormal or merely backward, all should be well, for he should get into the hands of a child guidance team which will regard his case as a whole, the child himself, his home, his school: everything medical, social, scholastic can be weighed up, a balanced choice of school made, and steps taken to persuade the parents.

But if the child is called backward or subnormal the chances are that no such consideration will take place. From what I am told by teachers in ordinary schools there are many areas where after an examination by the S.M.O. a decision is made that the child will remain where he is or go to a special school, and that is all that there is to it. I have no evidence that the examination is not an admirably thorough one, or that wrong decisions are come to on the presence or absence of a disability of mind. But I look in vain in those areas for evidence of a consultation and weighing of all the factors involved in choice of school, and organization within the school, or treatment within the school at all comparable with that which takes place for the maladjusted.

How should Guidance be given.

I have described the provision made for these two groups of handicapped children, and for one reason only; to show how complex the problem is. It is equally complex with other kinds of handicap. We are developing more and more kinds of special educational treatment: we are not satisfied with the older, smaller number, almost all given in special schools of traditional types. The more specialized the provision made, the more important it is that the right children get it and that the wrong children do not.

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The increased specialization among the facilities for the physically handicapped is largely, though not entirely, a medical matter, in which teachers and all the rest of us educationists have to follow the doctors' lead, while not giving up our right to speak up for the children's needs for a wide and thorough and appropriate education.

But in all the other groups, the visually handicapped, those with defects of hearing, and those with learning difficulties, the increased variety of provision has been and is being made on educational grounds. How should a decision be reached on which kind of education, among those offered, a child should have? Who should guide his parents' choice of school or course? Are teachers and members and officers of local education authorities from all over the country, satisfied that in their areas there is sufficient knowledge of handicapped children available, that decisions are made after all the facts have been reviewed? That teachers and parents are kept sufficiently informed of the parts they can play in the children's education? It seems to me that we really need a kind of educational guidance service to bring together all those who have a contribution to make on each case. For the rarer types of handicap it might even be wise to have a regional panel to advise L.E.A.s on children and schools.

Misconceptions about Special Schools.

When I discuss making various kinds of provision for handicapped children with members of local education authorities, and with their officers, I sometimes find a kind of horror at the idea of children being educated in special schools at all. "Let us try at all costs to make arrangements that will keep them in their own schools," they say. "No child should be sent to a special school who can possibly be kept in an ordinary school." "We must try to keep them normal and not segregate them from other children." Some people even think of putting a child in a special class as "segregation." I must say I find myself getting annoyed at these remarks which have become more frequent in recent years. They seem so uncalled for, and in a way so insulting to the L.E.A.s who have long maintained special schools, and to the teachers who work in them. If a child is getting on all right in his own school who suggests that he should go to a special school? I do not know of anyone. You would suppose that these people had evidence that numbers of children who did not need to go to special schools had been sent there by design and had suffered from the experience. You would think they had found that children became abnormal by attending special schools. What rubbish. I admit that some few special schools are not as good as they might be, and that the children in them would do better elsewhere, but one does not judge kinds of school by their worst examples. The people who do know special schools, the teachers who work in them in particular, know very well the transformation that is the usual result of beginning to attend a special school. They know the child who has been a misunderstood failure, both in his ordinary school and at home, who comes for the first time in his life into the care of people who are experienced in teaching children just like him. For the first time, on coming into a class where everyone is like him, he ceases to be abnormal. Segregation enables him to become normal. If he remained in his ordinary class with teachers who were not expert in teaching him—or had too many other children to let them do so properly—he would have become more and more out of contact with normality, and there would be less and less chance of his developing his full powers.

In saying this I do not mean to decry what has been done in ordinary schools since the 1944 Act gave us powers to provide for certain handicapped children there. It appears that for several categories we have practically enough special schools for our needs, and developments are more likely to take place in providing new services for

children who do not need special schools but still do need some help. But it is a great mistake to think that by setting up arrangements in ordinary schools we shall be able to take children now in special schools out of them. We shall require just as many special schools, for those who need them, and the classes in ordinary schools in addition for children who never have been sent to special schools.

Those who have to deal with handicapped children should not be afraid of words, even words with emotional values like "segregation" and "abnormal." By running away from them, they may do great harm to handicapped children, especially those with severe and lasting handicaps, by denying them a specialized atmosphere, specially experienced teachers, special methods and equipment which cannot be provided, for small numbers of children, except by "segregating" them in special schools. They need not think the children will suffer, if the special schools are of the best.

It is interesting to reflect that the three associations representing parents of handicapped children which have been formed since the war to agitate for better facilities for their children have not shied away from these words. The parents of the deaf, of the spastics, and of the subnormal children who have been organizing themselves to make their demands felt know from personal and often very bitter experience that it is no use pretending that their children are "normal." They know that they do not become like other children just by mixing with them, and that only if they, the parents, will openly admit their child's handicap and agitate to get specialized education for him apart from ordinary schools, will there be any chance of his eventually being able to develop to the limit of his potentiality: that is, become as normal as possible.

Conclusion.

Those who come into close contact with the handicapped have no illusions that all men are born equal. It is only too obvious that even in childhood some have heavy crosses to bear, their handicaps of body or mind. In adult life others have the bitter disappointment of having a handicapped child who cannot realize hopes they have cherished for their family. But in this country at least you will not find the teachers of the handicapped depressed; nor the doctors or nurses who care for them; nor the social workers, from bus drivers and canteen assistants to professional psychologists. To see a child triumph over adversity raises the heart: to know, as these people do, that they have helped in the triumph gives a satisfaction which is more than a professional pride in doing a good job. To see the difference between the pathetic blind infant and the sixteen-year-old in a discussion group, or at the piano; between the deaf infant, unable to express itself except by a smile, and the self-reliant school leaver, be his speech as faulty as it sometimes is; to contrast the often miserable, untidy, sheepish or aimlessly destructive subnormal of seven or eight with the products of our best E.S.N. schools: these experiences make one proud that in this country there is a public service devoted to the interests of such children. That service has done a great deal, but there are still thousands of children requiring special education for whom there are still no places and no teachers, and there is much to do in improving the places there are, some of which are very old indeed, and training more teachers. It is not my purpose to-day, however, to call for faster progress in providing special schools: it is no part of H.M.I.'s job to do that. My purpose has been to draw attention to the complexity of the field of special education and to plead for more knowledge about its ramifications, both among teachers and among members and officers of L.E.A.s.

Ald. F. A. Rickard, retired after twenty years as Chairman of Bedford Divisional Education Executive, has never missed a meeting.

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Parliamentary Secretary on Handicapped Children and Special Schools

The whole emphasis to-day, said Mr. Dennis Vosper, Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Education, addressing a conference of the College of Teachers of the Blind, is on drawing as little difference as possible between the handicapped child and the normal child.

Authorities, he said, had a duty to find out which children in their area required special educational treatment and there was a complicated procedure for doing this, but this duty was in principle no different from their other duties, for instance, to find out which children were suited for education in their grammar schools, their technical schools, and their modern schools.

Continuing, Mr. Vosper said: "It has never been intended that all handicapped children should attend special schools. There will always be some children who must be regarded as incapable of receiving education at a special school as they are now conceived. If an authority decides that a child is 'ineducable' a parent has the right of appeal to the Minister. The Minister does not decide the matter until he has had statements from the authority and from the parent, who is invited to send a report from his own doctor. In cases of special difficulty one of the Minister's own Medical Officers holds an independent examination. Over 300 appeals are dealt with in the Ministry each year and our Medical Officers hold examinations in about 30 per cent. of these cases—which is, I think, an indication of the care taken.

"What of children which an authority decides require education in a special school? Then the parents have a right to appeal to the Minister, but if the Minister decides to support the authority the child can be sent to a special school against the parents' wishes. This is, of course, a most undesirable thing to happen and children are never sent to special schools against their parents' wishes unless they have clearly not got the child's best interests in mind. This is particularly so when the school is a boarding school and the child will be wrenched away from home. Special schools, boarding schools most of all, should be our second thought, when it has proved impossible to educate the child in an ordinary day school along with his fellows and living at home. The vital thing, whatever is decided, is to get the co-operation of parents. If a special school is clearly best then the teachers can do much to convince the parents that their children should stay there, not because that is what the law obliges them to do but because that is what is best in their own interests."

Progress since the War.

Describing "staggering advances" in the field of special education since 1944, Mr. Vosper continued:

"In January, 1955, there were 735 special schools, of which 612 were maintained by local education authorities. 118 of these schools were conducted in hospitals. There are about 60,000 children in special schools, of whom 20,000 are in boarding schools and 6,500 in hospital schools.

"Some indication of our new interest in the problems of handicapped children may be gained by looking at the increasing local education authority expenditure on pupils in special schools since the war. In 1945-6, this was £1,673,000. By 1951-52 the amount had risen to £4,571,000 and for 1955-56 the estimate is £6,900,000. Between 1945 and the end of 1954, 256 new special schools were established and the number of new places provided was over 18,000.

"The spastic child has received special attention lately and I do not think that it can be too widely known that

when all special schools now authorized are completed in the next two or three years we hope to have sufficient accommodation for all physically handicapped children who require places in a day special school and for all those whose parents will allow them to go to a boarding school.

"You will see, of course, if you look at my Department's Annual Reports that there are still considerable lists of children awaiting places in special schools. Apart however from the special category of educationally subnormal children we seem in general to have reached the stage when we are in sight of providing enough places for all the children requiring education in special schools. This is not to say that adjustments will not be needed between different parts of the country or that some old schools will not have to be replaced, but it is a most satisfactory position, one which I think will give great encouragement."

The Educationally Subnormal.

"There are already some 23,000 educationally subnormal children in special schools but at the end of last year there were over 12,000 pupils whom authorities were trying to place in special schools. We are making rapid progress even with this problem. Projects in hand or due to be started will provide more than 5,500 places and small building jobs will provide a further 2,300 places. The building programme for 1956-57 will have a special emphasis on schools for the educationally subnormal, particularly on new day schools.

"Teachers of handicapped children have duties which are much more onerous than those of the ordinary teacher and it therefore reflects credit on the profession that there have been sufficient teachers coming forward to take up posts in the new schools as they have become available. There are now 4,126 teachers in special schools of all kinds, an increase of nearly 1,700 over the immediate post-war figure. The expansion in the number of special schools is, however, causing us to consider whether we can continue to attract enough teachers of the right type to staff our special schools adequately. You will be aware that the National Advisory Council on the Training and Supply of Teachers has gone very carefully into the whole question of the supply and training of teachers of handicapped pupils, and has presented a Report to the Minister which was published in November last year.

"In preparing its Report, the Council was greatly helped by the teachers themselves both individually and through their Associations, such as the College of Teachers of the Blind, and the recommendations are a measure of the importance of the work of teachers in special schools. We are now awaiting representations from the College about the training of teachers of the blind and you may rest assured that we shall take no action until these representations have been considered. Whatever the outcome of the Report, and this is something which will not be decided in haste, the knowledge and experience of the College is something on which we hope always to be able to draw.

"We are now spending nearly £7 million a year on the provision of special education, and I believe it is money well spent. A few handicapped children can never be self-supporting as they grow up, but education will help to make them all better members of the family circle and to make the majority more likely to take their place as worthy and self-supporting citizens in the world."

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Survey of Physically Handicapped Children Awaiting Places in Special Schools

The results of a survey of physically handicapped children in England and Wales awaiting places in special schools on the 1st October, 1954, have been sent to local education authorities.

1,052 children were found to be awaiting places in Special Schools—202 in day schools and 850 in boarding schools. Parental consent had been given in 525 of the boarding school cases. This total figure included 485 children suffering from cerebral palsy and 100 children suffering from the effects of poliomyelitis.

The educational arrangements for the 1,052 children were as follows:

371 children were receiving home tuition;

250 were in ordinary schools;

106 were receiving some other type of special educational treatment (mainly education in hospital).

Of the 325 children unprovided for, some were not receiving home tuition because of difficulty of finding teachers or of unsuitable home conditions.

Over the country as a whole there appeared to be sufficient day special school places for physically handicapped children, though the Ministry indicates that it is open to any local education authority to submit proposals for further provision in any areas where they consider that there is still a shortage.

Although there is still a shortage of boarding school places for the physically handicapped, additional places expected to come into use within the next two or three years should be sufficient for all children whose parents are likely to give their consent to their attending such schools. It appears to the Minister, therefore, that no further boarding school places for these children should be planned at present.

Improvement of the facilities within existing day and boarding special schools is required in some instances, and possibly some measures of reorganization, and the Minister intends to give guidance on this and other related subjects later this year.

Special Education for Handicapped Children under L.C.C.

At their first meeting the newly-reconstituted L.C.C. Special Education Sub-Committee were given figures of the handicapped children for whose special education they are responsible.

The latest return (March, 1955) shows that 9,614 such pupils are now receiving full-time special education. In addition, nearly 1,600 are attending part-time special classes, while about 700 are awaiting some form of special educational treatment.

Of the 9,614 full-time pupils, 6,984 are attending day special schools, 1,472 are residing in the Council's boarding special schools, 401 are being taught in hospital, and the remaining 757 have been placed by the Council in other boarding schools, hostels or foster homes.

Details were also given to the Sub-Committee under the various kinds of handicap from which the children are suffering: i.e., blind; partially sighted; deaf and partially deaf; physically handicapped; delicate; educationally sub-normal; epileptic; diabetic; maladjusted.

In addition, part-time classes are being provided for 1,309 children suffering from speech defects, including 409 who are attending day special schools for some other form of handicap.

Of the children on the waiting list, 104 are delicate children who need places in day special schools; 232 require boarding education (the largest number with any one handicap waiting placement being 90 maladjusted and 87

delicate children); 36 children are waiting for places in day special classes and 307 are waiting for treatment for speech defects. The only category which causes serious concern so far as the waiting list is concerned is that of maladjustment. There are some ninety children on the waiting list for placing in boarding schools for maladjusted children and the waiting period is often as much as six months and in exceptional cases may be longer.

New Developments.

Capital expenditure on special schools during the current financial year is estimated at £221,000. The present building programme includes: a day school for 160 physically handicapped children; a day school for 180 delicate children; a day school for 160 educationally sub-normal children; and boarding school development to provide new places for about 30 maladjusted children, 18 blind children, 36 educationally sub-normal children and 38 children with multiple defects other than deafness.

In their 1956-57 building programme the Education Committee propose to start work on two new day schools and a boarding school for delicate children, a new day school for the physically handicapped, with a boarding unit for children suffering from cerebral palsy, and the improvement and extension of Rayners boarding school for the deaf at Penn, Buckinghamshire.

The L.C.C. is now maintaining 66 day special schools, 5 hospital schools and 25 boarding special schools to meet the needs of handicapped pupils. The Council's draft estimates this year show £1,264,090 budgeted for the Special Education Service.

Applications to Training Colleges becoming an Embarrassment

"It is too frequently alleged that the standard or quality of education to-day compares unfavourably with that of the previous decades and does not measure up to the promise of the 1944 Act," said Mr. Dennis Vosper, Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Education, speaking at Lincoln early this month.

"Whilst without doubt some disruption was caused by the war and the teething trouble of the early years of the Act," continued Mr. Vosper, "I cannot accept the charge that the product of our schools to-day is on the decline, as indeed there is abundant evidence that the reverse is true. In this respect the most recent statistics of illiteracy provide encouraging reading."

"The problems during the last ten years which have faced those who devote their lives to education are not always understood by the parents, taxpayers and rate-payers. These problems derive from many sources, not least economic conditions, but I have in mind particularly the vast changes envisaged by the Education Act of 1944 and the accommodating of no less than 1½ million additional children into our schools during this period."

"Between January, 1951, and January, 1954, the numbers of juniors in maintained schools increased by 617,000. The fact that during the same period the average size of junior and infants' classes rose only from 34·3 to 35·6 is a remarkable tribute to local authorities, and to all associated in this enterprise."

Concluding, Mr. Vosper said: "I was once told that teaching was a depressed profession, but I have found little evidence of this during recent months, and indeed the evidence from the training colleges and the schools is to the contrary. Last year we appear to have added the substantial number of 7,100 teachers to our strength, and Sir David Eccles told the House of Commons that the applications this year to the teacher training colleges are becoming quite an embarrassment. This is a most welcome sign, and to me represents a new confidence in the world of education."

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The
SCHOOL GOVERNMENT CHRONICLE
and
EDUCATION REVIEW

No. 3358

MAY, 1955

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CONTENTS

	Page
THE CORRELATION OF ENTRANCE EXAMINATION RESULTS WITH G.C.E. RESULTS	349
HANDICAPPED CHILDREN	352
PARLIAMENTARY SECRETARY ON HANDICAPPED CHILDREN AND SPECIAL SCHOOLS	358
SURVEY OF PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED CHILDREN AWAITING PLACES IN SPECIAL SCHOOLS	360
SPECIAL EDUCATION FOR HANDICAPPED CHILDREN UNDER L.C.C.	360
APPLICATIONS TO TRAINING COLLEGES BECOMING AN EMBARRASSMENT	360
MONTH BY MONTH	362
DESIGN OF SCHOOL KITCHENS	364
IDEOLOGICAL EDUCATION	366
EXPANDING WORK OF THE IMPERIAL INSTITUTE	369
MISCELLANY	370
FILM STRIP REVIEWS	374
BOOK NOTES	378

Month by Month

The Youth Service.

It was only as recently as 1940 that the Service of Youth was officially recognized as an educational service with which the statutory authorities for that service not only may but must be concerned.

"Youth Welfare" said Board of Education Circular 1516 "must take its place as a recognised province of education" and the Education Act, 1944, made possible the legal implementation by local education authorities as well as the Ministries of that newly accorded recognition. One ought to be able to record that this was a logical and consistent extension of the interest and the functions of local education from childhood and adolescence to youth and maturity. Unfortunately no such record is possible. Thanks to the Curtis Report and the panic legislation which followed, the recognition of "youth welfare" as "a recognized province of education" was virtually coincident with reverse action so far as "child welfare" was concerned. Powers and duties of local education authorities relating to child welfare were compulsorily transferred from those authorities to newly-established "children" authorities. What had hitherto been the concern of education committees now became and continues even now to be the exclusive concern of children committees and their officers, appointed under the Children Act. An anomalous hiatus was thus created and still remains which should somehow be closed, unless one is really to admit that local education and health authorities, formerly recognized as fit bodies for functions relating to children, can no longer be recognized as such while a local education authority, for no known reason, becomes the fit and appropriate body when the stage of "child welfare" is passed and "youth welfare" begins.

Dr. Alexander told the Youth Officers of Local Education Authorities that the Youth Service would come into its own when the Fletcher Report had been implemented and "County Colleges" opened. Dame Olive Wheeler concluded her address by pointing to the "County College" as the answer to most of the questions raised by the principal speakers at the conference. Mr. G. H. C. Sylvester, Director of Education for the City in which the Conference was assembled, also deplored the "failure to start on County Colleges." It may, however, be well to remember, that the Service of Youth was not created by the Ministry or the Board of Education and that all the references thereto in Statutes, Instruments and Circulars are no more than a recognition of a service that owes nothing in its inception to the local or central government and which was doing valuable work throughout the country long before local education authorities had any powers therein. It may, indeed, be argued that it is not to the good of that service that it should be tied to schools and to the teaching profession. If education is a wider term than schooling such an identification should not be necessary. The McNair Committee reported simultaneously on the Training of Teachers and Youth Leaders, as if the latter was but another type of the former. Teachers do not necessarily make the best

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youth leaders nor need the training of leaders be considered as in any way connected with the training of teachers. Youth leadership has its own separate and distinctive vocation with all that that implies. The over-riding purpose of youth work, said Circular 1516, is the building of character and the development of the whole personality of young people to enable them to take their places as members of a free community. If the repeated references to County Colleges mean that such character building and personality developing is not going on now and that it cannot be achieved without the compulsion of "county colleges," without the vast new army of teachers that such "colleges" would require and without the social and industrial changes that would be involved, then those implications should be very critically examined. In this connection one may note with interest Mr. Sylvester's admission that without "county colleges" and without compulsion, some 60 per cent. of young people in his area are having continued Further Education. This suggests that the case for compulsion gets weaker and weaker.

Local Government and Education.

THE recent statement by the Minister of Local Government in the House of Commons held out some hope that serious consideration will at last be given to some of the anomalies of the present local government establishment. It seemed to point the way to something which would in true English and British fashion, be a development of and not a substitution for the present system. A radical reform of the structure, powers and boundaries of all local government units would have such far-reaching effects and involve the Government in such an orgy of legislation that the risk dare hardly be run at all. So far as education is concerned, the difficulties lie in the Butler Act and in the persistent refusal of Government to allow the perfectly proper legislation necessary to create new county boroughs. The schemes for divisional executives have, as is well known, been a cause of much criticism and dissatisfaction. The other creation of the 1944 Act, the Excepted District, is an absurd and unjustifiable anomaly. The blocking of bills for county borough status seems to be a grave abuse of democratic governmental powers. On what grounds can one justify the difference in status between the cities of Oxford and Cambridge? One is a local education authority, the other is not. The Urban District of Rhondda, the only Excepted District in Wales, has at long last attained the status of a Municipal Borough; yet long before the Butler Act, the Rhondda Local Education Authority (as it then was) provided practically all the educational services of a county borough. There are some forty English towns which satisfied the requirements of the Education Act, 1944, necessary for the status of Excepted District. Most of them, however, were local education authorities under the Education Acts, 1902-1921, and could well have fulfilled the functions of local education authorities under the Education Acts, 1944-1953. The most simple and straightforward local government reform, so far as the educational service is concerned, would seem to be the granting of local education authority—and if need be of county borough—status to the councils of those Excepted Districts which desire it.

Advances in Education.

THE Minister was able to take an optimistic note in the debate on Education in the Commons on the 26th April. Sir David Eccles claimed that the point had now been reached where the expansion of the size of the educational service could give way to improvements in standards. Parliament would soon have to consider "the fascinating choice of directions in which new advances could be made." A very strong hint, almost but not quite a promise, was given that the Government would in due course reduce the maximum permitted size of classes in primary schools to thirty. First steps had already been taken towards the extension from two to three years of the normal training college course. The National Advisory Council on the Training and Supply of Teachers had been asked to consider the implications of this development. This suggests a more cautious movement towards this desirable end than at one time seemed likely. The Minister mentioned county colleges and nursery schools as other matters still to be considered, but gave no indication of any early move in either direction. "There are also," he said, "people who would like to raise the school leaving age." The decision on which of these four reforms would become a "possible starter" in the next five years would call for great judgment. The Minister himself would lean heavily on the teachers. There will be general satisfaction that the Minister is so willing to consider the opinions of the teaching profession. The phrase "lean heavily" does, however, suggest that local education authorities and their officers, parents, employers and the many others

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to whom these reforms may be a matter of great concern will have very little effective say in the choice. There are some matters of government and local government educational policy on which the opinion of teachers may indeed prove to be too interested. The Minister expressed surprise at the "phenomenal rush" this year for training college places. He rightly interpreted it as a sign of returning confidence in the profession. It may perhaps also be a sign that the improved remuneration offered by the current Burnham Scales and the generally favourable conditions of service in relation to other professions are beginning to be generally recognized. A time-lag of some years is to be expected in such a matter. It certainly does suggest that the stories told at teachers conferences of professional poverty do not make much impression outside the conference room. The Minister's clear declaration of policy on uniformity of grants for students in training colleges and on changes in university awards was to be welcomed. A student who wins a State Scholarship will in future be allowed in addition the value of any other prize or award which he may have gained. Thus the old idea returns that a scholarship is not only a grant made to relieve financial difficulties but also a reward for proved and recognized merit of a high order. Sir David scored a point against his critics when he described their advocacy of the comprehensive school as showing their lack of confidence in the "modern" school. Certain it is that the fine educational work of these schools merits far greater appreciation than it receives. The Minister even understated the case when he said that "some of these schools" were doing well. Given the conditions laid down by the Minister's own regulations—and such conditions do prevail in more than "some" modern schools—the achievements of the modern secondary school can be and are of outstanding merit. If the other schools can be raised to the same standard the system, as the Minister said, would meet the needs of the modern world. No critic contradicted the Minister's quotation from a speech at a Labour Party meeting in London by a member of the A.E.U. that "Comprehensive schools will help to create a more Socialist attitude."

Handicraft Teachers.

THE training of teachers was also mentioned at the Annual Conference of the Institute of Handicraft Teachers and College of Handicraft at Harrogate last month under the Presidency of Mr. R. L. Jarrett. Speaking at the Conference Dinner Mr. A. B. Clegg, Chief Education Officer for the West Riding of Yorkshire, urged the need for a complete revision of ideas and practice in the training of teachers of handicraft. Mr. Clegg advocated a three years full-time course at a residential training college which would give the handicraft teacher the same time and opportunities for thorough training, both general and specialist, as is now done for the teacher of housewifery or physical training. Mr. Clegg's remarks implied no criticism whatever of handicraft teachers who of necessity had been otherwise trained and were in fact warmly welcomed by speakers for the Institute and College. The notable exhibition of pupils' work opened by H.R.H. the Princess Royal was the best possible evidence of the very valuable contribution to a full education which handicraft teachers are making, particularly in the "modern" secondary schools.

Design of School Kitchens

Kitchens designed to provide attractive school meals as efficiently and economically as possible are described in a Ministry of Education building bulletin* just published for the guidance of local authorities and architects.

The School Meals Service, in its rapid expansion during and immediately after the war, had to rely upon the use of standard accommodation (huts), standard equipment and standard layout for equipment and stores. By 1947 facilities for some 2,000,000 meals were added to existing schools in this way. Since then, however, kitchens and dining spaces have come to be part of the basic accommodation of most new schools, built at the same time and in the same construction as the main building. Two problems have required attention. What is the most economical type of kitchen, and how, educationally, are the kitchen and dining space best related to the rest of the school? The bulletin is primarily concerned with these questions.

Economy and efficiency in the working of the kitchen depend largely upon keeping all unnecessary movement of staff and goods to a minimum. Using simple time and motion methods, the bulletin illustrates a type of layout of equipment and working spaces which differs basically from that embodied in the original standard plans and which can be 25 per cent. more economical in floor area than many kitchens at present being designed. It is also shown that certain sizes of kitchen are more economical than others. Very small kitchens, serving less than 150 meals, are expensive in capital and running costs. The problem of efficient management arises in kitchens with a capacity of about 500 meals, and becomes acute when the capacity exceeds 650 meals. The most economical sizes are those with a capacity of 300 and 600 meals; most new kitchens will fall within a range of about 200 and 600 meals.

"A kitchen by itself," states the bulletin, "is only a machine; the quality of its products depends entirely upon the human element. Good staff will produce first class meals regardless of the shortcomings of the kitchen they have to use. A good kitchen cannot ensure good meals; it can only facilitate and cheapen their production."

As for the relationship of the kitchen to the rest of the school, the bulletin states "It was an accident of history that the dining space and the kitchen were the last areas to be added to the average school's schedule of accommodation and it is a present fact that many plans are still not able to absorb them comfortably into the general plan form. As the dining space came to be used for other purposes and was placed more and more centrally, it drew after it the kitchen, often into the most incongruous position."

"The dilemma is clear. The dining space needs to be treated boldly in the heart of the school and free of the complicating intrusion of the kitchen. The simplest type of service, on the other hand, calls for the direct linking of kitchen and dining space. With careful planning, however, direct service can nearly always be arranged in a way that is economically and educationally satisfactory."

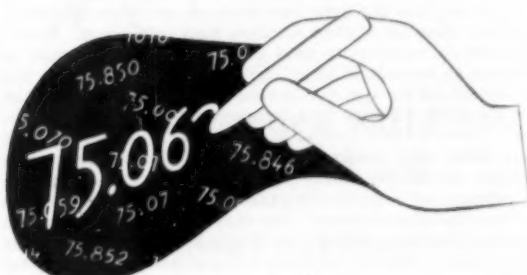
In addition to kitchen design in general, there are sections on the design of areas for storage, vegetable preparation, cooking, service, dining and washing-up. Details of staff accommodation, heating and ventilating, materials and finishes are given. Appendices, dealing with heated and unheated equipment in normal use, the use of heated trolleys, the design of very large kitchens, and the possible use of dish washing machines, are also included.

* Building Bulletin No. 11 "The Design of School Kitchens." H.M.S.O. 3s.

Houses for teachers.—Because it has 17,000 families on its housing list, West Ham Council has refused a request from its Education Committee for houses to be provided for teachers.

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Dr. Marchand, whose methods were simple and direct, would have welcomed the convenience and accuracy of 'AnalaR' reagents. It is even possible that they would have assisted the highly elaborate analytical work of Liebig and Redtenbacher to a more successful result.

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Ideological Education

BY JUNIUS.

From time to time we have been told from soap boxes and rostrums all over the country that "brains" are not the monopoly of any class. And listeners have blown out their chests and arrayed themselves in line with all the great scholars and men of action and opined that what has been missing in themselves has been due to lack of opportunity occasioned by the incidence of birth and its concomitant, a heavily loaded environment. "But," continued the agitators, "give to our children grammar school conditions and they will show them!" In other words, provide this new environment and there will be a mighty change, a change of heart, a change of attitude to work, a leap forward to discovery; in short we shall soon be on the verge of producing a race of supermen and women straining at the leash to leap into action and to make the world into a paradise for the common man.

"But things are not what they seem." This kind of statement was mouthed when entrance to the Grammar School was barred to many by the imposition of a few shillings per term plus the potential loss of a few shillings per week in wages. Move the barrier, we were told, and all will be well. In the majority of cases the barrier has been lifted, fees have gone and the paper round has compensated for the lack of earnings. The good old political maxim of "we'll help you to help yourself" has been followed and the clever little youngster capable of overleaping eleven plus examination hurdles and all that, has swarmed into the Grammar School and displaced his better fed and better clothed rival. Helped by a clothing allowance—cap, blazer and badge—he can now proudly display the insignia, coat of arms and all, of an institution he was originally taught to suspect and whose tradition it was fashionable in his circles to decry. And now he is one of them and don't the neighbours know it! There are a great many like him and the old-fashioned grammar school Head also senses the change, especially at the meetings of the Parents' Guilds. He soon scents the background, and the co-operation once taken for granted he finds now to be a major problem, which needs to be cultivated. The social assets associated with charm and good breeding are not there—within the family circle—if by chance they do happen to be there, they are certainly not in evidence in the school and its environs. There has been a revolution in society and a swing of power which has now begun to influence the school.

Characteristics.

The Head Mistress of a well-known London school in the course of an address at a week-end conference organized by the Leeds University Institute of Education on February 13th, 1955 is reported to have said: "That the characteristics of these homes were a different attitude to money, which was now desired not to purchase the privileges of a higher social class but to buy something which the class above had not got, a declining sense of responsibility, the opinion that success could be attained easily, a tendency to denigrate culture, and an ignorant sense of self-importance. The grammar school was not winning to its way of thinking the boys and girls from these homes. There was a serious waste of talent among the children of parents in the class of unskilled workers." The Head Mistress is a very courageous person and she has evidently drawn largely on the conditions existing in her school. But this attitude to education is not unexpected, it is only in a lesser degree the attitude towards life.

To elevate a depressed class by means of grants, subsidies, higher wages and a welfare state, including free education,

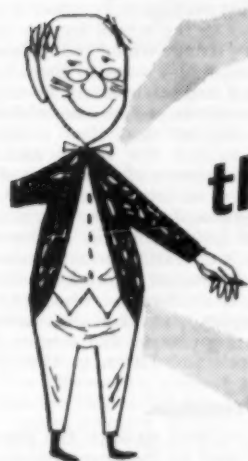
within the short space of fifteen years, is bound to bring within the process a peck of problems. The members of this class have been told so often "what grand folks they are" that they have at last begun to realize there is something in it and are more convinced when they experience the satisfaction of power, effected by mass thinking and voting. It is unnatural to expect any class without the traditional educational background either to appreciate or even to understand the implications involved in mastering a course of instruction, especially if some of the subjects of that course have apparently no direct connection with the end in view. Even plumbers have been known to protest against the attempt to instruct them in studying the properties of metals other than lead. It must be remembered that many of these young students are encountering for the first time subjects never even dreamt of by any member of their families, past or present. Hence there are no relatives to lend a helping hand, no books of reference to consult, in short the young person, once he has left the school for the day, stands alone. It is true he can visit the Free Library and browse among the books if he knows where to look and what to look for. He may possess many more text books, now provided free of cost, than students owned say thirty years ago, but competing with the product of a good educational background he is at a very serious disadvantage. He may be thrown on his own resources, he may stretch his imagination to the limit, he may persist until he achieves success and thus show his mettle, but in the absence of a friendly help and much encouragement, he finds that he has to work exceedingly hard and has to waste a great deal of time.

Home Conditions.

His home conditions may be restrictive: little space in which to work, competition with the piano, the radio or television, the lure of the family activities or those of friends, such as youth clubs, visits to the cinema, sports, dancing and a host of other devices to entice him from his homework. *Truly his home conditions need to be lived before they can be understood.* His assumption of importance is the facade which conceals a sense of inferiority. This facade will persist until its use can be discarded and forgotten, probably owing to some outstanding measure of achievement. A series of failures will only tend to strengthen it and to engender a hatred for the school and all concerned with it, culminating in a desire to leave. Hence with this class of child, this inexperienced wight, thrust into a maelstrom of rules and regulations entirely foreign to his nature and often bewildering in character, his early reaction may oscillate between submissiveness from fear and rebelliousness from sheer bravado.

The Staff.

On the whole the staff may find their academic instructional activities eased, but the inculcation of those other qualities which help to fashion the worthy citizen such as good manners, good habits and good behaviour, will tend to be much more arduous. In a school drawn mainly from one class there are very few models from which to copy, few patterns worth imitating, hence the pupils will have to look to the staff and if the staff are sartorially slovenly this will be reflected in the tone of the school. The Head who insists upon the wearing of a school uniform or frowns upon the consumption of sandwiches before the luncheon period, can easily be accused of exhibiting class distinction. Her motives may be well intentioned, but her



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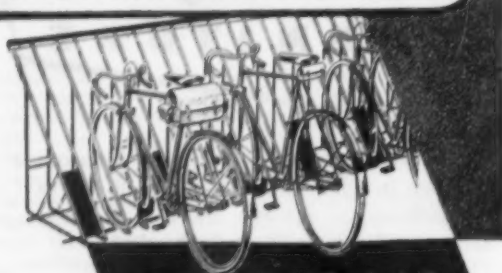
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actions will be suspect and in all probability reported to the party representative on the governing body. On entering their children *all* of the parents will agree to observe the rules and regulations obtaining in the school for the time being, but once their children's names are on the registers, to them the situation has changed and many of them fully intend to make their own rules and abide solely by these. This attitude is most in evidence when the children approach the statutory leaving age and then a whole catalogue of minor charges against the school and its working emerges, until the administrator who sees it wonders whether the school, in the mind of its detractor, is a mixture of an army glasshouse, a forcing greenhouse, a well organized Sing Sing or a minor form of Devil's Island. As for the denigration of culture, this can easily be understood. That which has never existed will never be missed and one does not need culture to earn more than one who seeks it. The counting of heads has completely wrecked the standard of values and it has become popular to dilate upon the export trade in terms of Greek and Latin, to their disadvantage.

The Same Technique.

And now the same technique used to open the portals of the Secondary Grammar School to the clever youngster at eleven plus is being employed to bolster up the case for the comprehensive school. "Give all of them the same conditions that exist in the grammar schools and all our geese will be swans," is the slogan. But they do not know their geese, or do they? These people who confidently pronounce on educational matters should peruse the schedules setting out the results of the eleven plus examination and should particularly notice the numbers of children who hardly obtain a mark in the English, Arithmetic and Intelligence tests. These are some of the children who have to be submitted to some form of secondary education. To attempt to introduce this class of child to anything approaching the work associated with a grammar school stream would almost amount to academic manslaughter. To attempt to persuade their parents that the new order will furnish all that is lacking mentally and produce an unlimited stream of qualified black-coated workers is criminally misleading, the raising of false hopes by undiluted humbug! The schools will need time and co-operation to mould their future citizens; they will require to establish new traditions and they will have to rely on the new generation to furnish the kind of background which will recognize true values and have more than a passing respect for culture.

Election Teaching Aids

In our last issue reference was made to two new wall charts by Educational Productions, Ltd. suitable for use in schools when dealing with election and parliamentary procedure. This month a further chart on this subject comes to hand from the University of London Press. Entitled "When Britain Chooses Her Government," it has been prepared by the Pictorial Charts Unit. All the vital information is available at a glance: the position of the parties at the 1951 Election, the roles played by the Press, the Radio, Television and other forms of publicity, and the many aspects of the election campaign, both locally and nationally (Price 6s.).

From Educational Publications also comes a new edition of "Your Parliament," prepared in collaboration with the Hansard Society. This is an ideal book for class use for the many schools who will be doing project work on parliamentary affairs at this time (Price 2s.).

The first headmistress of Mitcham County School for Girls, Miss E. F. Dunn, is retiring after twenty-five years in this position.

Expanding Work of the Imperial Institute

A Million Children Learn about the Commonwealth

During 1954, 450,000 people visited the exhibition galleries of the Imperial Institute—43,000 more than in 1953, and 62,000 more than in 1952. This is stated in the Annual Report for 1954 of the Director of the Imperial Institute.

A considerable expansion of the Institute's educational services has been made possible by increased grants from the United Kingdom government (£16,000 in 1953/54 to £24,000 in 1954/55) and from Commonwealth and Colonial governments (£9,000 in 1953/54 to £11,800 in 1954/55).

New ventures include the extension of lectures and conferences to Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland; a touring exhibition on the new Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland; the opening of a Schools Reception Centre; and the formation of a club for Commonwealth students.

The cinema attendance has gone up by 50,000 from 243,000 in 1953 to 293,000 in 1954. A 45-minute programme of Commonwealth documentary films, changed weekly, is shown three times daily including Sundays. At weekends full-houses were the rule, and the lunch-time performances on weekdays not only accommodated visiting school parties but proved popular with students, office workers and hotel guests in the South Kensington area. The Director (Kenneth Bradley, C.M.G.) mentions, however, that many more films are needed from the Colonial territories.

"The Institute is often wrongly called a museum," states the Director. "We are concerned in our galleries

with teaching the constantly unfolding stories of many countries which are changing and developing all the time, and in that we are concerned with the present and the future and not very much with the past; the display techniques which our task dictates in reconstructing our exhibitions are somewhat different from those used in museums. Our aim is to enable the teacher or the student to see, in their proper continuity, all the essential facts and characteristics of the country concerned, and to give the visitor, and especially the child, a vivid impression of its people and of the environment in which they live and work."

Schools, mostly from London and the home counties, made good use of the exhibits in the galleries for visual geography lessons. During 1954, 1,200 organized school parties came to the galleries with their teachers. In 1953, the figure was 975.

This increase is probably largely due to the opening last autumn of the new school reception centre and to the development at the same time of improved visual teaching facilities and techniques.

Attention has been paid to the promotion of extra-mural activity. Over 6,400 lectures (5,236 in 1953) were given to schools and to adult organizations in all parts of the British Isles. The total school audience reached in this way was more than 600,000. In addition, fifteen conferences were arranged in provincial centres for audiences drawn from training colleges and from the top forms of grammar schools. Each of these conferences, in which the audience played an active part, dealt with some current Commonwealth problem of political or economic development. Study-kits have been prepared to assist teachers, and the free lending library of film strips and slides has been augmented.

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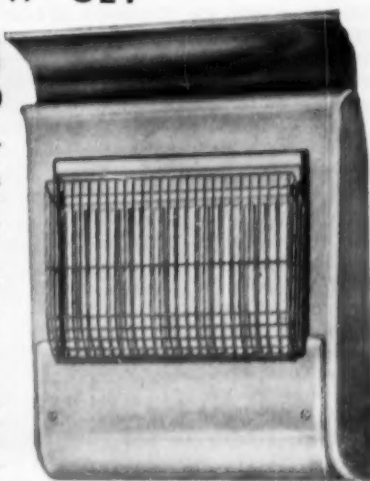
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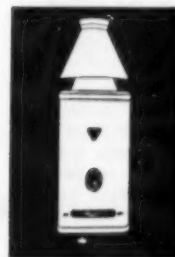
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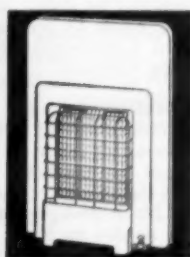
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Many new Commonwealth publications, suitable for school libraries or for private class study have been made available. Schools were kept informed through the issue of lists and by exhibitions at professional conferences.

The work of Commonwealth artists has been brought to public attention by exhibitions in the Art Gallery. Cultural and social interests have been catered for by the Commonwealth Students Club, which has made a good start and is now largely run by the members themselves. Accommodation and ancillary services have been made available for gatherings of Commonwealth student groups and associations; and the institute has assisted with special study courses, held on the premises, for exchange teachers and for young people taking up public or commercial appointments overseas.

It is estimated that, during 1954, no fewer than 1,125,000 people in the United Kingdom learned something of the Commonwealth through the activities of the Institute, and of these probably 1,000,000 were students or school-children. In other words, through the agency of the Institute, about 15 per cent. of the pupils at schools recognized by the Ministry of Education had, last year, at least one lesson on the Commonwealth.

The Director points out that it is just as important for children throughout the Commonwealth to learn about each other as it is for British children to be well-informed; and, in this respect, it is the Institute's ambition, with the co-operation of the governments concerned, to make its "transportable" services available to all.

Copies of the report are available free from the Information Officer, Imperial Institute, South Kensington, London, S.W.7.

The Development of the Social Services

The Churches Group of the London Council of Social Service have arranged a course of eight lectures in collaboration with the University of London at which the relationship between the social services and the needs of the individual will be considered in all its aspects. An interesting feature of the course is that there will be a symposium on the last day of the course when officers from central and local government departments will answer questions about the way their service works in practice.

Never before, said Richard Titmuss, Professor of Social Administration, University of London, opening the series on May 4, has society demanded such a high standard of physical fitness, so many complicated skills or created so many dependencies. The price we had to pay for more diversified and more specific labour requirements was the creation of more social ineffectives.

Before the nineteenth century society met social needs in a rough and ready way through the family, through charity and through the poor law. In those days individuals with mental or physical handicaps were not a menace to society.

Industrialization had not only made new demands on the individual it had also created new dangers to health and new diseases. The working classes had tried to meet these sufferings by the creation of friendly societies, clubs and trade unions. The more prosperous classes had tried to help through public service. This had produced a patchwork of services expensive to run and leaving gaps. The post-war legislation creating the welfare state was aimed at a more comprehensive service. These services and the way we used them were a mirror of our society and even more a mirror of the society that had preceded ours. They were, however, means to the good life and not ends in themselves. Written into the legislation was the aim of abolishing two standards of services but providing fair shares for all—an idea that had found favour during the war years.

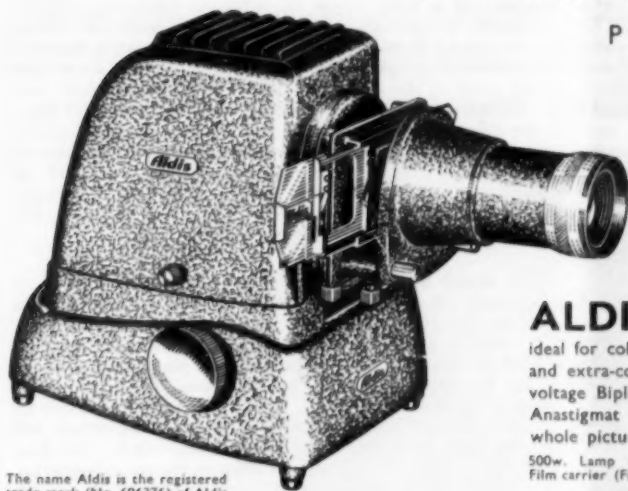
MISCELLANY

The Lady Allen of Hurtwood having asked the London County Council to consider the possibility of establishing in London an experimental playground after the style of demonstration playgrounds in Stockholm, Copenhagen and Minneapolis, and the site of the former Lollard Street school, Lambeth being available for the purpose, she, with others, have formed a voluntary association to lease the site on which to establish and develop an adventure playground. The Lollard Adventure Playground Association defines an adventure playground as a playground where movable equipment, tools and materials are provided with a view to contributing to the health, well-being and happiness of the children and to promoting their educational, physical and emotional development through a wide range of recreational activities. The Association intends to maintain the playground and the equipment, to employ supervisory staff, to maintain contact with similar organizations and to provide experience of the advantages to children. The Association has a strong foundation membership, including a member and officers of the Council. Its President is the Mayor of Lambeth and its Chairman The Lady Allen. The L.C.C. Education Committee have welcomed this experiment and will lease the site to the Association at a nominal rent for five years in the first instance and to make a grant of £225 towards the general expenses in 1955-56, and the cost of apparatus and equipment of the playground so far as they relate to school-children. They hope to receive early in 1956 an account of the progress of the experiment.

Reference is made in the annual report of the Leeds School Medical Officer to the discussion that has appeared in the lay and medical press on the value of routine examinations. School medical officers, says the report, have no doubt of their value, since it is only by examining an entire age group that defects can be picked out at an early age. In Leeds, 21,538 periodic examinations of children in the prescribed age groups were carried out by the medical officers during the past year. Grading was into three categories, C below standard, B fair nutrition, and A above average. The groups can generally be interpreted as A above normal, B normal and C below normal. The classification is naturally arbitrary, and takes into account the general physique, nutritional state, general muscle tone, and the overall impression of health or its absence. Children marked as 'C' are followed-up, and usually some assistance can be given, adds the report, to improve their condition, either by means of convalescence, removal for a period to a residential school, provision of school dinners, or extra vitamins.

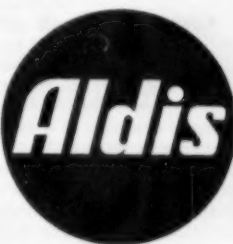
Following an application to the Essex Education Committee for the establishment of a nursery class at a certain school a sub-committee reported that there is still a serious overall shortage of teachers which is bearing particularly heavily on Essex and to use teachers for the under fives might well mean drawing them off from other schools where they are needed to teach children of school age, sometimes under less pleasant conditions. In the circumstances the Committee decided that for the present they could not see their way clear to give approval to the establishment of new nursery classes and reaffirmed their earlier decisions: (a) That where there is pressure on accommodation, children may only be admitted to infants' schools at the commencement of the term following their fifth birthday; (b) That children under five years of age cannot be taken into account in the application of the formula for staffing primary schools.

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Educationalists all over the country are joining the national battle against noise. Recent medical surveys have shown that harmful effects of noise takes a heavy toll of adult workers' health and efficiency. Its effects are even more harmful on children. Outside noises can distract and disturb children in a classroom. Noise destroys children's powers of concentration. It upsets their poise. And in the strain of an examination, the distraction of noise can cripple a child's efforts. Thousands of the biggest industrialists and business firms in Britain have taken up the challenge of noise lately. And the educationalists have not lagged far behind in installing Acousti-Celotex tiles, which are made from sugar cane fibres to correct acoustical faults. Over twenty schools, colleges and universities erected since the war have adopted these acoustical correction methods.

Mr. Harold C. Shearman, M.A., has been elected Chairman of the L.C.C. Education Committee for 1955-56, succeeding Mr. R. McKinnon Wood, O.B.E., M.A., F.R.Ae.S., who was Chairman from 1950 to 1955. Mrs. M. Griffith was elected Vice-Chairman. Mr. Shearman, who was born in 1896, was educated at the village school, Sulgrave, Northamptonshire, and subsequently at Magdalen College School, Brackley, and Wolsingham Grammar School, Co. Durham. After service in the war he continued his studies at St. Edmund Hall, Oxford, and secured First-Class Honours in History in 1922. His career has been in Adult Education, first as resident tutor for the Workers' Educational Association in Bedfordshire and then for ten years from 1936 as National Education Officer of the W.E.A. Since 1946 he has been Academic Adviser for Tutorial Classes in the University of London. Mr. Shearman has been a member of numerous committees concerned with Adult Education, including the Adult Education Committee of the Board of Education, the B.B.C., the Advisory Committee on Education in H.M. Forces (during the war), and more lately of the Advisory Council on Education in the Colonies and other Colonial office educational committees. He first joined the L.C.C. Education Committee in 1944, and from 1947 to 1949, and again for the last four years has been Vice-Chairman of the Committee.

Miss Mary Somerville, O.B.E., the first and only woman Controller in the B.B.C., has been presented with a Twenty-fifth Anniversary Award made by the Institute for Education by Radio-Television in America for an outstanding contribution to the development of educational broadcasting during the past quarter of a century. Miss Somerville's award was received, on her behalf, by Mr. Basil Thornton, the B.B.C.'s North American representative, in New York on April 14th. In 1947, at the invitation of the Institute, Miss Somerville flew to New York and attended their big annual conference at the Columbus University in Ohio. Later that same year, she visited Australia, at the invitation of the Australian Broadcasting Commission, to advise on school broadcasts and to lecture. In 1943 Manchester University conferred on her an honorary M.A. degree. Miss Somerville, who has been associated with school broadcasting ever since she joined the B.B.C. in 1925, was in 1950 appointed Controller of the Talks Division, which comprises three Departments, Talks, Religious Broadcasting and School Broadcasting.

Wool's value as an educational subject in schools was stressed by Mr. E. G. Barnard, Chief Education Officer for Portsmouth, in his address at the opening of a vacation course on wool at Portsmouth. Many outside interests which were only too anxious to introduce their subjects into the schools had to be discouraged, said Mr. Barnard, but with wool the position was quite different. He wanted to emphasize that the educational services of the International

Wool Secretariat could be of the greatest possible value to teachers of a wide range of subjects, including history, geography, economics, arts and crafts, and domestic science. Mr. Raymond Keys, I.W.S. Director of Education, spoke of the excellent co-operation from local education authorities in all parts of the country where I.W.S. courses had been held. Wool as a subject of study was well worth a place in the classroom he said. Few commodities could be said to have made so important a contribution to the economic greatness of the United Kingdom in the past, and its importance was no less vital to-day. Another significant aspect was the link that wool provided between the Commonwealth and the mother country.

"It would be wrong to rely on one kind of secondary education, especially in the later stages, to prepare our children for the increasingly rich and specialized world. My view is that every child ought to have a general education plus something special, and that the character of the modern world is such that these specialities must increase in number year by year, and therefore must be distributed over many separate schools. The result will be that each school has something distinctive to offer that probably cannot be obtained elsewhere in the neighbourhood. Then we shall have selection for everybody. The parents will choose from a wide range of schools, and with the advice of the teachers, will decide which school is likely to suit their child best. This is the only sensible way to put the eleven plus examination in its place and at the same time to give the children the best opportunities we can to prepare for the scientific age."—SIR DAVID ECCLES.

New school building records: a large increase in the primary school roll; and a year of steady progress in the work of the schools; these are the main features of the Secretary of State's report "Education in Scotland in 1954." School places provided during the year numbered 34,410, the highest annual figure yet attained and 7,156 more than in 1953. The number of places started, 41,033, and the number for which plans were approved, 46,881, were also higher than ever before. The number of new schools simultaneously under construction exceeded 100 during the year for the first time. The value of building work done, and of projects approved, started, and completed during the year was the highest ever recorded. Work was done to the value of £5.9 million, an increase of 15 per cent. over the 1953 figure of £5.1 million. The value of work started was £7.8 million compared with £5.9 million in 1953; the value of work completed was £6.9 million compared with £4.7 million; and the value of work approved was £10.1 million compared with £7.5 million.

The British Committee for the Interchange of Teachers between the United Kingdom and the United States is now inviting teachers in the United Kingdom to apply for inclusion in the 1956/57 group of exchange teachers. The Committee hopes to arrange for 100 British teachers to exchange posts with a similar number from the United States. Exchange teachers from this country normally receive a grant of £225 from the Ministry of Education, the Scottish Education Department or the Ministry of Education for Northern Ireland. A generous grant is also given by the Fulbright Commission, to cover the cost of the return Railway Transport in America between New York and the teaching destination and part of the sea passage between Southampton and New York. It is hoped that these grants will be available for the 1956/57 exchanges. Teachers wishing to apply for exchange should write as soon as possible to the British Committee for the Interchange of Teachers, Concord House, 11, Charles Street, London, W.1. Completed application forms must reach the Committee not later than Monday, 17th October next.

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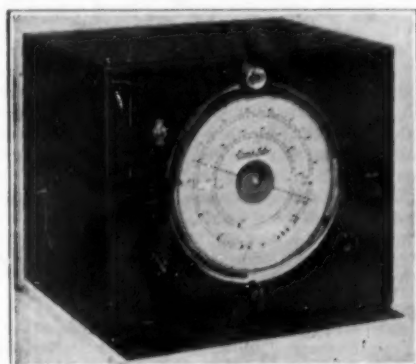
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Increased Grants to Training College Students

Wide increases in grants to students attending teacher training colleges are recommended in the unanimous Report of a Working Party set up in January, 1954, by Miss Florence Horsbrugh when Minister of Education. In the Debate in the House of Commons on April 26th Sir David Eccles announced his acceptance of these recommendations, subject to further consultation with the local authority associations before authority was given for the introduction of the scheme.

The present assistance available to training college students for the personal expenses of their course varies from no grant at all to some £80-£90, according to the local education authority concerned, with a mean of about £30. The Working Party considered these variations to be indefensible and recommended that standard rates of grant should be adopted by all authorities, the rate-born share being distributed among authorities according to the respective sizes of their school population. It also recommended that all local education authorities should adopt a standard rate of parental contribution and that this scale should be the same as that in force for State Scholarships.

The maximum grant recommended for a student taking a two-year course of initial training comprises an initial outfitting grant of £30 and two annual grants of £65. The same rates are applied to other courses of differing length with, in the case of the specialist housecraft and physical education courses for women, appropriate increases in the outfitting grant to cover the greater costs involved. These rates of grant should be subject to a triennial review on the same basis as those of university awards, but should operate until the end of the forthcoming triennium, i.e., until 1958.

In addition to the appropriate grant for personal expenses, grants should be payable to cover the ascertained cost to resident students of their journeys to and from college at the beginning and end of each term. Similar grants in respect of their daily journeys to and from college should be payable to day students who live at any considerable distance from the college.

For students who attend a supplementary course directly after completing initial training (as continuous students) the appropriate maximum grant for personal expenses should be £65.

Secondment on salary should become the normal form of financial assistance for serving teachers employed by local education authorities who are selected for a special course for experienced serving teachers or accepted for a supplementary course (as deferred students) or for certain other shorter full-time courses. Serving teachers attending such courses, for whom secondment on salary is impracticable, should be eligible for grants towards personal expenses at a maximum rate of £95 (or pro rata for shorter courses).

Such teachers should also be eligible for the dependants' allowances which are already available to certain older students taking one-year courses of training.

Where courses are held at a University Department of Education students should receive grants at the rate appropriate to post-graduate students taking the one-year course of professional training at that Department.

The Working Party consisted of members appointed by the Association of Education Committees; the Association of Municipal Corporations; the County Councils Association; the London County Council; the Joint Education Committee for Wales and officials of the Ministry appointed by the Minister. The Chairman was Mr. Miles Davies of the Ministry.

FILM STRIP REVIEWS

GAUMONT BRITISH

8C 271—Fables De La Fontaine, Part 1.

8C 272—Fables De La Fontaine, Part 2.

Intended for children in their second year of French and onwards. Ten fables are dealt with, four in strip 1 and six in strip 2. These strips should do much to foster a liking for French literature. The attractive coloured illustrations tell the stories clearly, and each frame is overprinted with the original verse of La Fontaine to which it refers. The text is difficult in places, especially for the younger pupils. The author therefore recommends, with some justification, that the story be told in simple French with the first showing of the pictures, and has thoughtfully included a simplified version of each story in the Teacher's Handbook. There are notes also of the more difficult words and idioms. After studying the text and familiarising themselves with the meaning, the next stage may well be reading aloud from the screen to encourage plenty of expression; we have noticed in connection with English verse and prose how concentration and effort can be stimulated by attractive illustrations to focus attention, and the same will doubtless apply to these well-designed strips. Gramophone records are available for five of the fables. Part 1, 23 frames; Part 2, 26 frames.

8C 266—Smell and Hearing.

Excellent diagrams in colour to show the mechanism of sight and hearing. In the section dealing with smell vertical and transverse sections of the nose are given to show the front and side views of the nasal fossae respectively, and microscope diagrams show respiratory and olfactory mucosa. The section dealing with the ear has a typical cross-section diagram showing the outer, middle and inner ear as a whole. This diagram is used in subsequent frames four times but arrows pick out specified parts referred to as each part of the ear comes under attention. There is a good picture of the ossicles and illustrations of the labyrinth and cochlea with a cross-section of the latter. The function of the cochlea might well have been made more clear by including a diagram with arrows showing the path of sound vibrations from the oval window upwards along the canal and downwards to the round window where vibration ends. The microscope section of the Organ of Corti is not very convincing; a well drawn diagram showing the rods of Corti with hair cells attached would have served the purpose better. A good point is the inclusion of four frames with numbered arrows for revision and recapitulation. 22 frames.

5 181—Pompeii.

Pompeii lives to-day as a monument to the past. The twenty-four photographs here show what a flourishing Roman provincial town was like in the century after Christ. The well laid out houses, the Forum and basilica, the lovely temples and the amphitheatre are all here in their faded glory. The strip is intended for the eleven-plus group but will naturally be of use to students of much older age groups as an introduction to the study of Ancient Roman History.

5 246—Canadian Beef Cattle.

A National Film Board of Canada strip showing the progression from herds of cattle to beef, sausages and leather. Straightforward pictures have simple explanatory captions below. A map indicates the main cattle regions of Canada with percentage distribution and a diagram shows products derived from cattle besides beef and leather. Care, branding, spraying, rounding up and transportation

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are clearly shown. An interesting strip which will be very easy for children to follow. 30 frames.

SC 290—People in Ancient Greece.

SC 291—People in Roman Times.

SC 292—People in Ancient Egypt.

Three excellent strips in colour of three civilizations—the Egyptian period 3000-1000 B.C., the Grecian from 600 B.C., and the Roman at its best in the century and half following the birth of Christ. As the children's first introduction to ancient Egypt is usually by way of the Old Testament, the strip opens with some of Pharaoh's activities and the Nile. Many of the illustrations are naturally based on material discovered in the tombs and there is much of interest here in the dress, occupations and mode of life. The strip closes with a particularly fine photograph of a scene depicted on the back of a chair found in Tutankhamen's tomb showing the young king and his queen. 25 frames. The illustrations in the strip on Greece are taken mainly from vases or sculptures (24 frames), and for the strip on Roman life from the inscriptions, paintings, mosaics and architecture (25 frames); in both these strips there are pictures of the gods. The series provides a fine introduction to ancient history for eleven-plus age groups.

COMMON GROUND, LIMITED

CGA 610—Wild Life in East Africa.

This strip comes at a time when the public have followed with interest and acclamation the remarkable pictures of wild life made available on T.V. and the cinema by the patient efforts of Armand and Michaela Denis and the eminent Disney team of specialists. It is a great pity these lovely films cannot be seen again and again; for this reason we can extend a very special welcome to the first strip of

this nature, for we can now study at leisure what before we had to enjoy in large doses all at once. All the lovely pictures in colour were taken by John Blower of the Uganda Game and Fisheries Department—the man on the spot—who has given us the benefit of his knowledge in the accompanying script. Particularly interesting are the studies showing herds, for one can observe the animals from all angles. From an area teeming with wild life it has been difficult to know what to include, but we are confident that children and others will find the selection satisfactory. 15 frames depict animals from the plains and 7 those of water and forest. Three photographs of typical scenery introduce the sections.

CGA 624—Cinderella.

A Lotte Reiniger filmstrip, and for those who like these delightful silhouette studies we need say no more. The continuity and spirit of the story have been well captured in the sequence of the frames. It is remarkable how repulsive the ugly sisters can look even in silhouette, and how charming Cinderella and the Prince, more by pose than portrait. The coach, the clock, the herald and other accessories are all there. The script is designed to be read as the frames are shown. 35 frames.

CGA 609—Leonardo Da Vinci.

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B.178 "The Houses of Parliament," produced by British Instructional Films, 30 frames (10s.) This strip, which is available with or without captions, tells the story of the history of Parliament through up-to-date photographs of the more interesting features in the Palace of Westminster.

General Sir Ronald Adam, Bt., G.C.B., D.S.O., O.B.E., Chairman of the British Council, has agreed to open the Fifth Annual Visual Aids Conference, which will be held on July 8th and 9th, at Bedford College in London. In addition to his brilliant military career, Sir Ronald has earned distinction in many other fields of service, and particularly in education. He is chairman of the Council of the Institute of Education at London University, President of the National Institute of Adult Education, a Governor of Birkbeck College, and a Trustee of the National Central Library. He has been one of the British delegates at the General Conference of Unesco since 1946; and has taken a notable part in many national enquiries and commissions.

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BOOK NOTES

Lomond Arithmetics, by S. L. Christie, B.Sc. and E. H. Gibson, B.Sc. (University of London Press, 4s. 6d. net.)

The final book in a series designed for the junior school. The book consists almost entirely of a very large number of arithmetical exercises and simple, realistic problems. They are well graded in difficulty and provide ample material for a year's work. Tables of quantities not in general use are excluded, and heavy time-consuming calculations have been omitted in favour of less onerous examples designed to ensure a firm grounding in method and to give the child a feeling of achievement. A useful and sensible class-book.

Revision Note-Books: Chemistry, by C. K. Hillard, M.A.; Geography, by A. W. Harding, B.A.; History Books 1 and 2, by C. R. N. Routh, M.A.; Punctuation, by Eric Partridge. (Basil Blackwell, 1s. net each.)

Here is a further selection of Revision Note-books covering the various subjects of the school curriculum. Once again, they vary in method—and in success. In his Notes on Chemistry, Mr. Hillard has attempted to summarize the factual information—preparations, simple analyses, volumetric analysis, formulae for some common substances, uses of some elements and compounds, chemical definitions—that a student should have at his finger-tips for the G.C.E. Ordinary examination. As a reference-book and for last minute revision it should be most useful, but the student who, during the course, has come to rely on this *vade mecum* rather than on committing such facts to memory, might live to regret the primrose path along which it has beguiled him.

In his Geography Notes, Mr. Harding gets down to basic principles from the outset. The student is made to think. The book is intended to be useful to him only in helping him to solve problems on which he has already embarked; it will not do the work for him. It contains a wealth of excellent advice on dealing with examination questions, it is simply expressed, and it springs straight from a teacher's tried experience.

Unlike most items in this series, the History Note-books do not break new ground. The task of providing skeleton summaries of historical material for examination purposes has often been attempted before, and been done better. Mr. Routh's heavy, unbroken paragraphs (there is a mammoth one in Book 2 running to five full pages) do not make for easy reading or rapid mental digestion. Nor is the selection of material nor the emphasis placed upon it altogether in line with present teaching practice—for example, the "ins" and "outs" of party government are made to appear far more important than such movements as the Industrial Revolution, while the spirited defence of George III, although reflecting credit on the loyalty of an Etonian to his Founder's descendant, might be open to dispute on purely historical grounds.

But the gem of the collection is undoubtedly Eric Partridge's "Notes on Punctuation." Here is a little classic, a work of art as of scholarship, which deserves a far wider and more discerning public than the inky

denizens of the Upper Fifth. This is the book on punctuation for which the man in the street has been waiting—the man who wants a reliable guide but who is not inclined to spend either the time or the money on a more ambitious manual. The place for this amazing shillingworth is not in the educational publisher's catalogue but on the station book-stall and the counter of the popular stores.—C.

The Administration of Education in New Zealand. (Oxford University Press, 16s. net.)

A course in comparative education might well be compulsory for all who enter the field of educational controversy. There is nothing more refreshing—or more salutary—than to escape from our own insular debates on methods and organization into the clearer, less rarified educational atmosphere of, say, the Scandinavian countries, or, as in this instance, New Zealand. Of course, we know their conditions are different from ours. As Mr. Parkyn, the Director of the New Zealand Council for Educational Research says in his Introduction: "One might expect that such a small, new, democratic, and homogeneous community would have a fairly simple public education system, which would present few of those administrative complexities that harass the person who tries for the first time to understand the organization of education in Great Britain or the United States." But one is touched, nevertheless, with a wistful envy for the clear-cut simplicity of it all. This account of the pattern of education in New Zealand has been prepared by a group of distinguished administrators for the New Zealand Institute of Public Administration; the emphasis is therefore on the framework of the system rather than on what actually goes on inside the schools or other institutions. The reader in England will be most interested in those sections dealing with methods of tackling problems which exist here also. The contribution on Adult Education by the Secretary of the New Zealand Council of Adult Education is a case in point. It shows how sensibly New Zealand has dealt with the overlapping and waste of public funds consequent upon voluntary bodies, whose usefulness and purpose have been largely outgrown, hanging on obstinately to their vested interests. The book closes with a most searching and enlightened enquiry into the fundamental aims of educational administration. Altogether, a book to be recommended to administrators and training colleges in this country, both for its abundance of factual information about an interesting system and for its refreshingly broad and practical outlook.—C.

Cricket—How to Play. (Educ. Publications, Ltd., 6s.)

Three years ago the M.C.C. Youth Cricket Association produced a Cricket Coaching Book and the success of that publication has led to the issue of this new manual which has been written with a different target in view, not the coach but the boy cricketer himself and especially the boy who has largely to work out his cricket for himself without the help of any experienced coaching. In text and illustrations, which are profuse, it covers the basic technique of the game, and also emphasizes the great importance of the right mental approach to it. A useful guide to all young cricketers, and incidentally all royalties from the sale are to be devoted to the work of the M.C.C. Youth Cricket Association.

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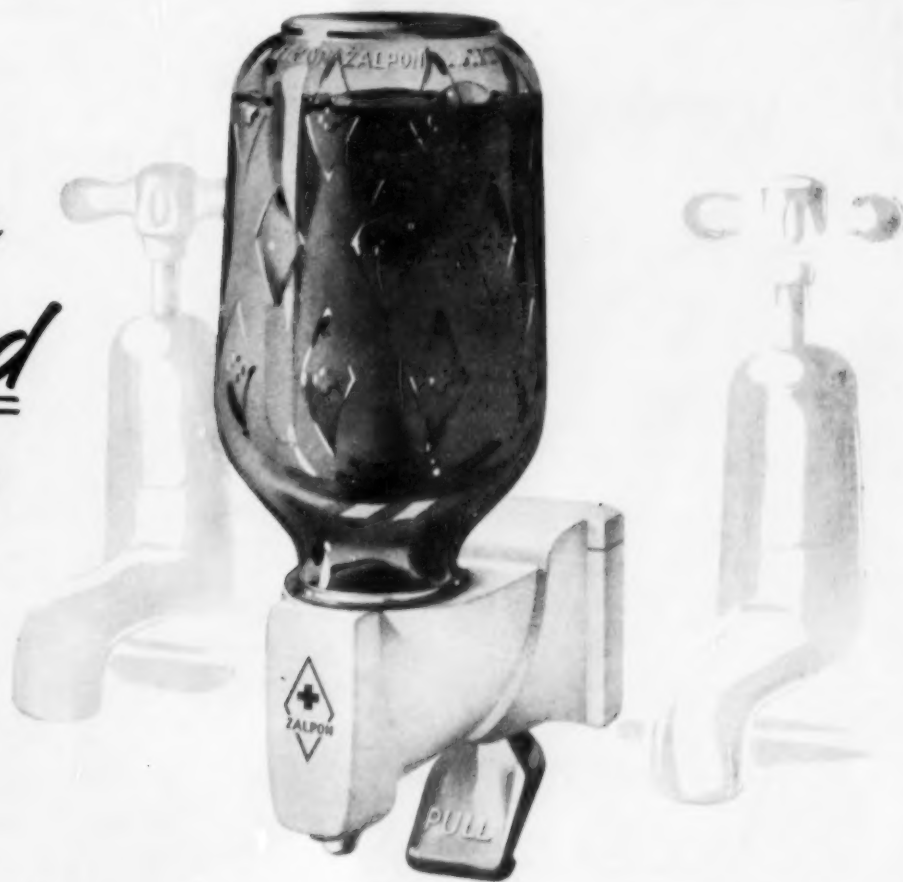
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